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ABSTRACT

Paraprofessionals have been employed in a variety of functions for many years. Recently in the helping services, career employment of paraprofessionals and the rapid unfreezing of the 1960's bias toward a psychodynamic, one-to-one approach offered only by highly trained professionals have allowed paraprofessional roles to expand beyond data-handling and other entry-level activities. Those employing paraprofessionals must develop a plan of systematic training, supervision, and evaluation. A clear specification of the tasks to be performed and the skills needed to perform these tasks can lead to the development of precise criteria for selection and training. Possible training methods include role playing; supervised practice; content lectures; technical task training; human relations skills training; and sensitivity, encounter, or group counseling. Specific attention to the needs of paraprofessionals and individualized training programs can result in greater satisfaction, a stronger sense of identity with program objectives, and more favorable performance evaluations. (Author/HLM)

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SELECTION AND TRAINING OF PARAPROFESSIONALS FOR COUNSELING AND PERSONNEL WORK IN EDUCATION

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The use of aides, technicians or assistants commonly called paraprofessionals has grown tremendously in counseling and personnel services in education in recent years. Some would cynically trace their origin to the creative head of federal government (Zeus), out of which the idea of aides sprang full-blown, like Athena, upon the profession starting with crash programs such as CAUSE in 1964. A survey of the literature, however, reveals that paraprofessionals have been employed in a variety of functions for many years. Residence hall advisors, student assistants in guidance offices, parent aides and other noncareer paraprofessionals have been widely used. Brown and Zunker's (1966) survey of student assistance in personnel work in higher education shows both quantity and variety in their use, though at relatively low-level, usually clerical tasks. In the more general field of education, the formally employed teacher aide has been on the scene for at least two decades. Further, ample precedent for paraprofessional employment has existed in health-related fields, law and engineering for many years. Two things are new to counseling and personnel services, however: (1) the career employment of paraprofessionals, and (2) the rapid unfreezing of the 1960's bias toward a psychodynamic, one-to-one approach to helping services offered only by highly trained professionals. These developments have allowed the roles played by paraprofessionals to be expanded far beyond mere data-handling and other entry-level activities.

Defining the Paraprofessional

The fact that the term paraprofessional includes persons offering a wide variety of direct and/or indirect services to students, some of which appear to be precisely what professionals have been doing; the fact that paraprofessionals function both within counseling and guidance centers and also in various outreach capacities; the fact that they may be either

career or noncareer; the fact that their formal preparation ranges from none to as much as two years' worth; and the fact that peers at all age levels as well as nonpeers are used -- serve to make an answer to the question "What is a paraprofessional?" complex.

Three vantage points are offered for perspective. Each of them considers paraprofessional with reference to professional and is therefore comparative and relative.

Consider the dimension of level of training. The American Personnel and Guidance Association monograph, Support Personnel in School Guidance (Zimpfer, Fredrickson, Salim and Sanford, 1971), considers paraprofessionals not to have full educational credentials needed to be professional. True enough. But what is "professional"? Carkhuff (1969a) designates four levels of helper, the only true professional being the Doctorate holder. APGA considers the professional to have completed two graduate years. The average "professional" in the field of school guidance possesses a Master's degree. Proliferation and differentiation of guidance certification is occurring (Florida has separately certified occupational specialists; South Carolina has identified five levels of guidance worker; New York State schools have hired drug counselors who are often relatively untrained to work in a capacity equal in status with teachers and certified counselors). To a Doctorate holder, the person with a Master's degree or less is paraprofessional; to the Master's degree holder, the Bachelor's or less would be paraprofessional. From the vantage point of credentials, breadth and depth of training and specific experience, then, the paraprofessional is considered to be less than fully qualified.

Another vantage point defines the paraprofessional in reference to the role of the professional. If the professional's chief and

distinguishing function is counseling, whether one-to-one or group, then this particular function would be denied to paraprofessionals. The paraprofessional would perform a variety of other services, perhaps both direct and indirect, in support of the counseling/guidance center's main contribution, counseling. This is essentially the position taken by APGA in its official role statement on paraprofessionals (APGA Professional Preparation and Standards Committee, 1967).

On the other hand, professionals can choose to function more in the consultative-coordinative realms of service; their work can be outreach in nature, working within the larger milieu of the student body, the school or college as an institution, and the community; they might be oriented toward social-learning aspects of student development and less focused on psychodiagnosis or psychodynamics; their emphasis can be developmental-preventive rather than remedial. Given this orientation the paraprofessional is not limited to noncounseling duties, since counseling is not necessarily the most distinguished professional activity or contribution. Given the findings in a variety of studies that paraprofessionals perform facilitatively as well as professionals (e.g., Carkhuff, 1968; Delworth, 1969), some paraprofessionals are offering premarital counseling, drug counseling, abortion counseling and other previously proscribed services. Personnel do what they are good at doing, without a priori limits. This latter usage of paraprofessionals is particularly common in colleges (and growing quickly in high schools) with the use of student peers; it is also common in adaptations of New Careers programs, in which indigenous poor and/or minority persons are recruited in order to bridge gaps (generational, institutional, cultural) and help the services become more credible and effective. Such a program if full-blown offers several levels of

position in order to afford upward mobility for the paraprofessional. He/she can attain the topmost (professional) level without being required to obtain formal educational credentials. The underlying distinction between professional and paraprofessional in this frame of reference seems to be related to the degree of orientation toward the social system of the institution rather than being based on credentials or on distinctions in the services offered.

The third frame of reference hinges on the definition of mental health and thus on the determination of the needs of one's clientele. If mental health is determined by one's level of self awareness, by an understanding of one's own psychodynamics, then the helping task is to change the client through influence on personal inner processes. Paraprofessionals in such a context are employed to support and improve counseling services per se. If on the other hand one's description of mental health is that the individual possesses skills to cope with his/her external reality -- the people and institutions, pressures and expectations impinging on one -- then the helping services will enlist the involvement of significant others in the client's life, and may perhaps even try to change them. The services are directed to the helpee's ability to manage the world in which one finds oneself. Coping skills are relational, interpersonal, cast in a neighborhood environment or broader culture. Given these new parameters and dimensions, whose field incorporates more than inner psychodynamic processes, the helper's job enlarges in scope, and becomes activity-oriented and skill-based rather than introspective.

Cowen (1967) discusses eloquently this distinction in mental health concepts. He is concerned with the needs of the poor for housing, legal aid, medical attention, nutrition, family stability -- a community

psychology viewpoint, but such an approach to mental health is easily applied to school and college environments. The distinction between professional and nonprofessional in this case has to do with the pool of workers one draws from, the nature of their life experiences, and the kinds of tasks they perform. The pool is not limited to those who function with certain psychodynamic counseling skills, and whose objective is to change the client through insight. Workers at all levels attempt to change the "system," or at least help the client adapt behaviorally to it.

Obviously this muddies the distinction between professional and paraprofessional. Zimpfer, et al. (1971) call for an increasing amount of autonomy, responsibility, and judgment for paraprofessionals as they gain experience and profit from training. At upper levels, there may well be considerable overlap between professional and paraprofessional on the autonomy dimension. The problem behind defining the paraprofessional is at least partly one of establishing and preserving a professional "image," as Bentley (1968) has suggested.

The following distinctions between professional and paraprofessional, though they lack rigor and specificity, can help to identify the professional, and thereby to describe at least by elimination the paraprofessional. The professional:

> understands the broad goals of the institution and the program of helping services;
>
> can articulate a defensible and ethical theoretical base or rationale for his/her services;
>
> coordinates and supervises the overall functioning of the program of services;
>
> organizes and may conduct training;
>
> is accountable for the outcomes of the services offered; and

evaluates the program and modifies it in light of evaluation results and emerging needs.

Implementing the Use of Paraprofessionals

One must develop a plan for employing paraprofessionals. The hiring of a group of personnel to do some unspecified helping tasks, with selection criteria vague and not tied to the tasks or skills to be expected, with no systematic training, supervision and evaluation, with no involvement of the other personnel significantly affected by their use, is deplored.

The following guidelines for use of paraprofessionals in a program of helping services are offered:

1. Determine the objectives of your educational system/institution. While often stated in high-flown and unarguable terms in statements of institutional philosophy, squeeze these down to concrete terms by asking, "What really do people around here want to happen to students, while they are here and after they leave?" This inquiry will set the limits as well as the horizons of work for the whole educational enterprise in your school or college.

2. Determine the place of human helping services within the context of the above analysis of institutional goals. What are the specific needs that are to be met through counseling and personnel services?

3. What personnel and other resources are already available to fulfill these needs? By elimination, then, one can determine what yet needs to be done. The gap is one which may be filled by paraprofessionals and/or by reordering the priorities and functions of professionals. The incumbent professionals' activities may be altered not at all, or very possibly may be completely changed. The paraprofessional need not merely

be "tacked on" to fill bookkeeping and filing assignments within the existing set of services.

4. Once the specific needs which paraprofessionals will fulfill have been identified, the skills and the personal attributes required of candidates for paraprofessional positions can be determined. Their specific job functions can be described, at least tentatively.

5. It is assumed that throughout the process thus far the various personnel groups of the institution have been involved: administration, instructional faculty, other counseling or personnel service workers, and even community representatives. Institutional support does not occur spontaneously. Budgets, space, specially assigned personnel, and time are not awarded without conviction. Change proposed from the power base of counselors -- one that is not legal or formal or coercive, but rather which comes from persuasion and reference-group status -- must capitalize on interpersonal skills. Involvement not only allays fears, but reduces ignorance and resistance to change. It enlists cooperation and mutual use of resources.

6. Selection of paraprofessionals includes wide advertising, use of appropriate selection criteria (perhaps on an inclusion rather than on an exclusion principle), and active participation of those directly concerned with the use of the paraprofessionals. The counselors or personnel workers who will work with or will supervise the paraprofessionals, or whose job will somehow be affected by their employment, must be involved in the actual selection process. This injunction proceeds from two assumptions: one, there are distinct a priori advantages to such participation, as noted above; and two, the compatible and cooperative team functioning of professional and paraprofessional is a crucial dimension influencing

the success of a paraprofessional program. This compatibility begins or fails almost at first sight. The personnel worker and paraprofessional alike deserve the opportunity to be involved in mutual choice.

7. The tasks to be performed, the skills required to execute those tasks, and the qualifications of the paraprofessionals hired, all combine to determine the training that will be needed. Training may be provided from inside or from outside, depending on one's philosophy regarding training and on the time and other resources available.

8. Preservice training is conducted. Early introduction of the supervising counselor or personnel worker into this training is an important step toward building team cooperation.

9. In-service supervision has been found to be vital to the success of a program involving paraprofessionals. These dimensions are included: skill maintenance, opportunity for resolution of problems and issues, upgrading of paraprofessional service, and perhaps promotion to a higher status level.

10. Continuous evaluation of both the individual paraprofessional and the contributions of the program is essential both to insure service consistent with goals and satisfactory performance, and also to offer budget-conscious and image-conscious administrators and lay people hard data for decision making. The professional should expect to be able to justify one's own program on stronger grounds than merely theoretical or wishful ones.

The focus in the remainder of this paper will be devoted to those portions of the above approach to implementation of a paraprofessional program which have to do with selection and training.

Selection of Paraprofessionals

Inasmuch as there is great variety in the possible uses of paraprofessionals, and since the pool of persons from whom paraprofessional trainees may be selected is both large and diverse, the factor of selection becomes crucial. Two studies in the elementary schools give rather eloquent evidence of the need for careful selection, and also begin to point the way to possible criteria for selection. Smith (1970) and Stoffer (1970) both conducted programs which used community volunteers with children who needed help. They found low levels of interpersonal skills on the average among their helpers. Smith believed this was a problem which contributed greatly to the lack of progress among children in his experimental programs in school psychology. Both he and Stoffer pleaded for a much strengthened selection process for lay helpers. The low level of facilitative skills was found despite positive recommendations from persons (teachers, neighbors) who were acquainted with the lay helpers, and despite the voluntariness of their services. Evidently such criteria as good recommendations and willingness are not enough to insure the success of paraprofessional functioning.

Developers and researchers in the Primary Mental Health Project (Cowen, Dorr, Izzo, Madonia and Trost, 1971; Rappoport, Chinsky and Cowen, 1971) firmly believe that selection is more important than training in assuring competent paraprofessional performance on the job. However, it is not easy to identify appropriate selection variables. It has been found that paraprofessionals will tend to cluster together on certain dimensions. Sandler (1971), for example, studied community mother volunteers in the Primary Mental Health project which offered direct helping service for elementary children who were identified as having incipient

emotional problems. These several dozen lay women scored uniformly high on factors of empathy, affiliation and nurturance. This commonality suggests that a determination of the attributes and skills which lead to paraprofessional success may be achieved ultimately. More recently, behavioral selection procedures such as the Group Assessment of Interpersonal Traits (GAIT) has been used (Rappoport, Gross, and Lepper, 1973). These and other trainers (D'Augelli and Chinsky, 1974) are using a combination of careful selection based on interpersonal skills plus a variety of training modes to produce successfully functioning paraprofessionals.

Since there is evidence that the counseling process can be harmful if ineptly used, Truax (1970) concentrated on selecting candidates for both professional and nonprofessional counseling who already possess high levels of interpersonal skills considered necessary for counseling effectiveness. It can be maintained, then, that a paraprofessional program which intends to use lay helpers in direct contacts with clients either should select those who possess these interpersonal skills, or should at least include development of these skills in preservice and in-service training.

Some efforts have been made to identify the measures which might predict successful outcomes of training and of the help which paraprofessionals offer. Traditional approaches via standardized testing have produced mixed results. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) has been used in selecting college and adult paraprofessionals, but the findings are inconclusive (Murphy and Ortenzi, 1966; Holbrook, 1972). McKelvie (1971) used the High School Personality Questionnaire and the Rotter I-E Scale in selecting high school counselor helpers. Oraker (1970) used a 30-item paper-and-pencil test to measure empathy, warmth, and

genuineness among lay counselors in a religious setting. Diermenjian (1969) developed a Biographical Inventory with empirical keys, in an effort to discriminate between social service aides who had skills in interpersonal relationships and those who were less effective in small human relations training groups. Truax (1970) drew both on personality instruments such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the EPPS, and on situational tests, in which the candidate is asked to actually conduct one or more group sessions with real clients. Truax wanted to identify individuals who had stable ego strength ("nice guys" who are strong rather than passive), who were already highly skilled in interpersonal relations, and who could provide adequate levels of therapeutic conditions.

The situational test as described for Truax above and other newer approaches to selection seem to hold promise. Wyrick and Mitchell (1971) used specific work samples and peer judgments to assist in selection of paraprofessional helpers. Kern (1970) used a sociometric procedure to locate the most influential children in the classroom for use as peer helpers. The Group Assessment of Interpersonal Traits (GAIT) developed by Chinsky and Rappoport (1971) is becoming popular. Overall, it seems most pertinent here to suggest that a clear specification of the tasks to be performed and the skills needed to perform those tasks is essential. Then rather precise criteria for selection and/or training can be identified, and appropriate assessment tools based on those criteria can be located or developed.

Training

Tailoring Paraprofessional Training to Program Goals

The nature of training and the specific skills or tasks to be taught depend to a large extent on the philosophy of the school or college, and

on the focus of its counseling or personnel services program. In institutions that stress acquisition of knowledge and the development of skills for successful learning and working and living, the paraprofessional will be selected and trained to assist in skill development. It is likely that the paraprofessional's own activities will be task and skill-oriented. Thus he/she may assist in testing, data gathering, teaching and reinforcing decision-making and other coping skills. Training this paraprofessional is itself skill-oriented. The trainee observes the counselor or other personnel worker; one imitates; one practices in simulated situations; and one tries out real job tasks under close supervision. Cavins (1969), for example, used short-term systematic training in order to develop three specific skills: group standardized test administration, summary of student cumulative folders, and observation of individual student behavior. Haase and DiMattia (1970) used Ivey's (1971) microcounseling paradigm, a detailed and structured approach to training of specific human relations skills such as attending behavior, reflection of feeling, and expression of feeling.

By contrast, institutions which have what may be called a humanistic orientation are more concerned with the development of relationships and attitudes than with specific skill growth. This focus seems to be more appropriate in schools and colleges than in other agencies which are likely to have more specific task objectives. Training of paraprofessionals in these process- and relationship-oriented settings often is like a counseling program in its own right. Pyle and Snyder (1971), for example, used small encounter groups as part of their training of student counselors in college, in order to produce "change in the personality attitudes of the trainee himself" (p. 260). Together with other support personnel, supervisors, and even clients, they may be exposed to sensitivity/encounter

group sessions to examine their own attitudes and behavior. The paraprofessionals thus learn about themselves and how they affect others; they work through their own stereotypes and prejudices, and search for their own values. The goal of training is to produce the kind of person a client can trust rather than to develop the paraprofessional's specific skills. Supervision of paraprofessionals like these focuses on discussions of the kinds of relationships that they have developed in their work with clients, and how their interactions affect both clients and staff.

A third approach to training is found in schools and colleges which seek themselves primarily as part of a larger community. The institution wants better relationships with the community in order to arrive at close agreement on objectives, values and approaches. The helping services' main functions may be at basic levels, such as arranging for food programs, child care, legal services, and other activities dealing with physical and security needs, in order to equip neighborhood families and/or students with the means for coping with daily life, and render them amenable to education. Or, the counseling/personnel center may feel that its services are suspect and misunderstood among its students or among the larger community in which it is located. It is also possible that the professionals feel they do not understand the values or attitudes or behavior of their clientele. Paraprofessionals in these settings are recruited for their ability to both represent and communicate with students or neighborhood residents. These settings may be inner city, migrant rural, multiracial, bilingual, and any other situations where the school or college feels that closer community ties will be helpful. Training of paraprofessionals for these programs, when the candidates come from a population that is disadvantaged in some way, often involves elementary activities, such as

clerical or information-giving or telephone skills; it also includes clear orientation to the objectives and services of the school or college, since the paraprofessional may not have the same learning/living style as the professionals in the institution. Conway (1969), for example, described the deployment of black paraprofessionals in segregated elementary schools of a California school district. They were specifically instructed to ignore the traditional organizational structure of the schools assuming that this would help to serve their clients. The paraprofessionals acted as school-community workers, involving themselves directly with parents and children both in the home and in school; they served as models of adults who are warm, friendly, and respected for those black youths who have never perceived blacks from their community in successful, responsible positions. What the training clearly should not do is to remake the support persons over into the professional mold, for in that process the advantage of their original alignment with the community is usually lost.

Training in more recent years has come to include combinations of the above approaches as understanding of the work of paraprofessionals has become more sophisticated. Perhaps the best articulated is Truax and Carkhuff's (1967) integrated didactic-experiential approach which combines both skill development and self-understanding into paraprofessional training. Such programming operates on the belief that when skills are employed in an interpersonal context (e.g., telephone communication, intake interviewing), the personal style and needs of the would-be helper are also influencing the situation. Both self-knowledge and technical facility are required, and both must be fostered in training.

Training is vital. But the training varies according to the needs of the institution and the goals that are established for the paraprofessional program.

The Characteristics of Paraprofessional Training

Through a search of professional journals, dissertation abstracts, the ERIC retrieval system, and informal contacts with paraprofessional programs throughout the country, over 50 reports have been identified which focus specifically on training of paraprofessionals for counseling or personnel services in educational settings. This section will summarize the characteristics of those training programs.

Preservice and In-service Training. Half of the reports were Doctoral dissertations. Many of these involved training only, and were not connected with any program of actual services. In others, even when a program was implemented, the pretraining was an independent variable; as such, in-service training or ongoing supervision were systematically and specifically eliminated.

Where the paraprofessionals were actually to be used in service delivery, a combination of preservice and in-service training was extremely common. All of the programs offered some degree of preservice experience, with three exceptions: Foxley (1972) undertook a human relations and communication training program for the entire support staff in various student affairs offices of a university. This was entirely a post-hiring venture. Denham, Shatz, Felsenfeld, and Fishman (1967) reported a regular high school curriculum which provided on-the-job training in human services along with a regular academic program. Muro (1970) describes a program in which parent volunteers were trained on the job to perform supportive, relationship-building services for referred individual children in elementary school.

Preservice training programs varied. The briefest contained a few hours of specific interpersonal skills training, using a structured approach such as microcounseling (Ivey, 1971), parts of the Carkhuff

training model (Carkhuff, 1969b) or the Danish Basic Helping Skills Program (Danish, 1971). The longest was the two-year preparation for psychotherapy provided for mature women in a National Institute for Mental Health training program (Magoon and Golann, 1966); a number of these therapists later became employed in high school or college counseling centers. Didactic instruction and extensive supervised practice were combined in this program. Most preservice programs, and overwhelmingly so in later literature, are specific and focused on limited objectives and skills.

In-service training varied also. In a few programs it was loosely described as help given to the paraprofessional in the event that problems or crises arose. But in the majority a more detailed cognitive-instructional experience, or a specific opportunity for planning and problem solving, or supervised observation and feedback, was provided on a continuing basis (Carlson, Cavins, and Dinkmeyer, 1969; Denham, et al., 1967; Muro, 1970; Salim and Vogan, 1968; Zeran, 1969). Truax (1970) made on-the-job training a keystone to his didactic-experiential integrated approach to the education of professional and nonprofessional counselors alike.

Breadth and Scope of Training. From the viewpoint of the school or college, factors of convenience, cost, availability of training personnel, and the degree of preciseness required in training the paraprofessionals, all must be taken into account. Thus, limitedness rather than expansiveness often becomes the prime consideration. From the viewpoint of the paraprofessional, those considerations are usually reversed. These personnel would typically prefer the broadest and most complete training, which would offer the greatest opportunity for upward mobility and for transferability of skills and experience to other settings or jobs. This

is assumed to be a particularly strong motive among disadvantaged or minority groups.

The external institution, such as a school or college or special program where training is provided for personnel hired to work in other places, probably has greater resources at its command than the local school or college personnel staff can muster internally. The external program has faculty charged specifically to conduct training, and they are experienced in doing it; it has materials, facilities, and space to do a more competent overall job of training. To make this possible, however, certain accommodations have to be made. It is unlikely that an external program will provide the paraprofessional with precisely every skill for every task that is required on the local level. It is also true that an external institution, in order to offer such training, must have a large enough supply of students to float the program fiscally. This usually entails generalizing the program enough to make its services acceptable to a variety of institutional settings and jobs.

The broadest approach, it seems, has been suggested by Steinberg and Shatz (1968). In the curriculum they propose, the following elements are included: (1) coverage of generic issues in human service occupations which are common to service occupations in general; (2) focus on activities and understandings in human services in one occupational cluster group, e.g., health, education, social service; (3) specialization in one type of paraprofessional work, combining specific skills and on-the-job training. Their model has three categories, each more precise.

1	2	3
GENERIC ISSUES IN HUMAN SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	Education Core	Teacher Aide Library Aide Media Aide
	Health Core	Home Health Aide Laboratory Aide Mental Health Aide
	Social Services	Casework Aide Interview Aide Child Care Aide
	Justice Core	Patrolman Aide Police Community Aide Communications Aide

Many community colleges around the country have developed human services programs. These focus, more specifically than the Steinberg-Shatz scheme, on preparation of paraprofessionals for work in psychological, social welfare, and educational agencies and institutions. A few community colleges have initiated programs that are tailored to a given paraprofessional specialty. Such is the rehabilitation aide program at Middlesex County College, New Jersey, described by Jaques (1972).

Typically a community college program will lead to an Associate degree, which provides a sense of status and achievement to the student. The opportunities for job advancement are greater for this person than for the lesser-trained paraprofessional. Similarly, the opportunity for transfer into four-year and ultimately even into graduate training, if the student has the aptitude and the desire, is also afforded. Horizontal mobility is also an advantage of a community college program. Because of its breadth, the knowledge and skills acquired by the paraprofessional are often generalizable to a variety of settings.

There are also Bachelor's degree programs in helping services. Pennsylvania State University has a program at the Bachelor's level in

rehabilitation. North Texas State University has conducted a Bachelor's degree program for guidance associates for several years.

Comparatively broad programs have also been conducted in settings other than the community colleges. The program for parent aides (Gilbert, 1968) in Berkeley, California schools focused on preparation for a variety of roles. While most trainees became teacher aides, several became community aides or neighborhood workers, and others worked in a guidance learning center for emotionally upset children. There were also a guidance aide and a library aide in the program. The Semiprofessional Training Project in a Regional Supplementary Educational Center in New York State (Educational and Cultural Center Serving Onondaga and Oswego Counties, 1968) prepared both teacher aides and guidance aides. The interinstitutional training program for paraprofessionals in occupational resource centers in Massachusetts (Leland, 1972) prepared aides in a limited number of specified tasks, but their application was diverse. Trainees from this program were employed in private and public schools at the middle, junior high and senior high levels, in correctional institutions, settlement houses, extension centers, and a Boys' Club. Typically such programs are terminal, since they do not carry academic credit. However, in the case of the Semiprofessional Training Project, college credit was arranged. These programs may be locally operated, as the Gilbert project was with federal funds; others may be conducted statewide with both state and federal funds, as in the Leland program. Jones and Wright (1970) used CETA backing. The common thread among them is that they prepared more than one kind of aide, or at least prepared them for more than one kind of setting; their content and activities were broader in scope than a strictly local program, yet less rounded than a community college program.

Individual schools and colleges have also developed their own paraprofessional training programs, specifically tailored to the type of personnel and to the tasks and skills required in their own institution. There are numerous examples in the literature. For example: Brown (1965), Carlson, et al. (1969), Erickson (1971), Feiereisel (1970), Foxley (1972), Gutsch, Spinks and Aitken (1969), Kelley (1971), McCarthy and Berman (1971), Muro (1970), Pyle and Snyder (1971), and Salim and Vogan (1968). These span a tremendous variety of kinds and levels of paraprofessional, amounts and types of training, and setting.

Type of Training. Among the studies and reports of paraprofessional preparation, numerous training methods were used. There are interesting comparisons to be made among the methods, and also according to whether the individual study was a short-term experiment (most often a dissertation-type project) or an ongoing program. Table I shows the types of training and the types of project, with frequencies for each.

Table I

Type of Training Method and Type of Project Among Paraprofessional Training Programs

	Short-term experiments; dissertations N=26	Ongoing programs N=26
Planning conferences	1	4
Sensitivity, encounter, group counseling	2	5
Human relations skills training	17	6
Technical task training	4	14
Content lecture and discussion	5	14
Role play situations	3	6
Supervised practice: Observation and critique	3	7
	N = 35	N = 56

This summary, of course, spans a wide variety of types of training: long and short, detailed and general, volunteer and near-professional. The total of methodologies in the table is almost double the number of projects because training typically incorporated more than one method. Following are observations which may be made about the accumulated training programs:

1. Ongoing programs included larger numbers of training methods. Dissertations and short-term experiments often sought to isolate the specific effects of single independent variables such as a particular training methodology. Even though there are equal numbers of each kind of report, the investigations include 35 separate methodologies, whereas the ongoing programs utilize 56. The directors of ongoing projects evidently believed that multiple training approaches would serve the various needs of their paraprofessionals better than a single methodology.

2. Newer methodologies, notably human relations skills training, are more prevalent in the dissertations and experiments. However, such approaches are increasingly used in ongoing programs.

3. Technical task training is far more common in ongoing projects than in experiments. This suggests a concentration in those programs on indirect service, thing- or paper-oriented kinds of application for the training rather than direct person-to-person services.

4. Role playing and supervised practice are used considerably less frequently than more traditional teaching methods. It has been argued often that paraprofessional training should afford hands-on, tryout experiences with the concrete rather than deal with abstractions and concepts. This advice evidently is not being heeded as much as it might.

5. Open-ended, personal growth-oriented, encounter-type experiences are not nearly as common a training device as are more focused, relatively specific goal-oriented methods.

6. Human relations skills training, often using aspects of the Carkhuff training program (1969b), is by far the commonest form of preparation utilized in dissertations and short-term experiments. Typically, it is either the single independent variable or the one variable hypothesized to be the most effective.

7. There is variety in the human relations skills training programs. Some teach very specific skills, such as eye contact, posture, and other dimensions of attending behavior; reflection of feeling; expression of feeling. These are represented in the microcounseling paradigm (Ivey, 1971). Helping Skills: A Basic Training Program (Danish and Hauer, 1973) includes both specific skill training (e.g., nonverbal attending behavior, advice giving, questioning) and the conditions underlying specific helping behavior (e.g., understanding one's needs to be a helper). The Carkhuff program focuses on those skills which are assumed to be core conditions in any high quality interpersonal relationship such as empathy, concreteness, genuineness.

Area of Focus. In the total literature of paraprofessional training including the above studies, there is a wide array of roles for which they are being prepared. The following applications of training can be identified:

1. The generalist in guidance. This is typified by Carlson, et al. (1969), whose Bachelor's level assistants served with elementary school counselors; and by Salim and Vogan (1968), whose three women guidance assistants served in middle and high schools.

2. The psychotherapist or practical counselor, as typified by Magoon and Golann's (1966) women trained over a two-year period to offer mental health services in a variety of settings including educational

institutions; and by Truax's (1970) integrated didactic-experiential preparation.

3. The supportive or relationship-oriented helper. The Primary Mental Health Project in clinical psychology (Cowen, et al., 1971) in which neighborhood women employ their naturalistic helping manner, offers support and attention to elementary children who have early-identified emotional problems. Muro (1970) introduced essentially the same type of program under guidance auspices.

4. The community aide, who seeks to represent and interpret community needs to the professionals, and who attempts to make the school more approachable to the community. Conway's (1969) school-community workers and Schlossberg's (1967) aides are examples of this type of paraprofessional.

5. The helper who offers direct services to students in nonsensitive human relations areas. Brown (1965) used college students to provide personal-social orientation and academic counseling to incoming freshmen. Vriend's (1969) high schoolers acted as co-leaders with counselors in groups, and also conducted their own study groups to follow up on plans made in the counseling sessions. McKelvie (1971) and Mosher and Sprinthall (1971) also used high schoolers in relatively nonsensitive areas. Kern and Kirby (1971) report success in using fifth and sixth graders as peer helpers in groups conducted by counselors. The children were chosen for their sociometrically perceived influence among their mates.

6. The resource center aide. Leland's (1972) program utilizes paraprofessionals to identify, evaluate, order, catalog, and disseminate a variety of resource information: occupational literature and personal-social inquiry materials alike. Since the available resource materials

appear in several media, skill in handling audio-visual equipment is important to these personnel.

7. The companion. First started in schools as big-brother and big-sister and recently revived (Vassos, 1971), the companion concept has caught on in some psychiatric settings. Warmth, attendance, and general nurturance by relatively untrained but social-welfare minded volunteers seem to be prime ingredients of this approach. The role has appeared in recent counseling and personnel literature at the college level (McCarthy and Michaud, 1971; Melby, 1971).

8. The residence hall counselor, who is trained and expected to perform more than administrative and maintenance duties. There are several examples of this use of paraprofessionals: Borden (1970), Dendy (1971), Meshanic (1971), Moates (1970), and Scharf (1971).

9. The human-relations trained college peer helper, not necessarily part of the residence hall staff, who functions in a developmentally oriented outreach program. Such are Archer (1971); Berenson, Carkhuff and Myrus (1966); Bridges (1971); Dyste (1969); Pyle and Snyder (1971); and Teevan and Gabel (1978).

10. The New Careers type paraprofessional who works in urban poverty areas as preschool aide, teacher aide, day care aide, and counseling aide. Denham, et al. (1967) report a unique program with high schoolers in this area.

Studies Comparing Methods of Training Paraprofessionals for Work in Educational Settings

This section reports on a number of studies, all of which used college students as subjects of training (none were found at any other level), which compared two or more approaches to training. Although the number of studies is small, although the training methods and research

procedures are varied, and although the samples are limited to one class of subjects, some useful observations and inferences can be made.

Nine studies, eight of which were dissertations, compared outcome variables. All but one of the total of 32 different outcome variables used in the studies focused on paraprofessional perceptions, attitudes, skills, or behavior in service. One dealt with client perceptions of change following treatment. None examined client change of behavior as an ultimate outcome variable.

Numerous independent variables were used in the same nine studies. Four included the Carkhuff human relations training program or an adaptation of it. Two used Interpersonal Process Recall (Kagan and Krathwohl, 1967) or an adaptation of it. Three used lecture/discussion. There was one each of programmed self-instruction and reading on a topic appropriate to the training model, role-playing and modeling.

Of three studies which compared some variation of the Carkhuff human relations program with some other training method and which also used the Accurate Empathy Scale as a criterion, the results favored the Carkhuff approach two times (Berenson, et al., 1966); Borden, 1970). In the other study (Scharf, 1971), there was no difference between training methods. As to training in accurate empathy, then, no method tested was found to be superior to the Carkhuff program.

When the Carkhuff program was coupled with another method in an integrated training approach, the results always favored the combined approach. Thus in Archer (1971), Interpersonal Process Recall was combined with the Carkhuff program in contrast to an encounter-developmental group experience and a no-treatment control. In Berenson, et al. (1966), a quasi-therapy group experience was joined with the Carkhuff approach in

contrast with a treatment which was similar except that it lacked the research scales (e.g., empathy, genuineness) and the quasi-therapy treatment. There was also a no-treatment control. The combined treatment produced significantly better scores than either control on ratings of counselor-offered conditions, on tape ratings, and on reports by interviewers, significant others, and helpers themselves.

The Carkhuff empathy training model was offered by audio-visual and by audio-alone methods, with no difference in outcome (Meshanic, 1971).

One study (Bowers, 1972) found that brief training in facilitative conditions, using the Carkhuff model, produced equally as good results in telephone interviews as in face-to-face counseling. This suggests potential uses for the model in the preparation of hot line operators.

The development-encounter type approach never proved superior, except in one study (Mohr, 1971), in which it was compared with the traditional didactic-lecture method.

An early version of the Danish Basic Helping Skills Program tested by Perino (1971) failed to show products different from any other treatments (programmed self-instruction, experiential, and lecture), but was superior to a no-treatment control.

Two studies (Dendy, 1971; Scharf, 1971) examined the duration and pacing of training. Each used two forms of a modified Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR) technique: one was completed in a 40-hour week, and the other extended the same training over several months with a summer recess intervening. Dendy found significant improvement in facilitative functioning of his trainees during the first (spring semester) phase of extended IPR, no loss in functioning during the summer interval, and further increases during the second (fall semester) phase. Scharf

found no difference in the overall effects between the extensive and intensive approaches to IPR training of paraprofessionals.

Kopita (1974) found that a structured training program produced better attitudes and more skilled helping behavior than did an unstructured one.

Two studies focused on racial variables. In a cautious summary of results, Banks (1970) concluded that training of adult lay counselors of both black and white races enhanced their level of communication. They performed more facilitatively both with adults and children of their own race, and with adults and children different from their race. The race of the trainer and trainees was also systematically varied and studied, and neither the race of the trainer nor of the trainee was found to have any effect on the outcome of training. Goldring (1969) found that white male university students could be trained to produce client comfort among male black adolescents in initial interviews. It had been hypothesized, however, that an atmosphere of informality (proximity of interviewer and interviewee, lounge-type chairs, and casual dress) would be more effective. It was found that this informality did not increase black client comfort; in fact, the formality condition was significantly more effective on several scales of a mood checklist which interviewees filled out.

Peth (1971) has observed that no studies, at least in rehabilitation, showed paraprofessionals to function less well than professionals. This positive finding tends to hold true in a wide variety of studies in educational settings as well. Further, when trained paraprofessionals are compared with untrained, the trained regularly are found to perform more facilitatively or more effectively. When training programs are presented as one-shot studies without control conditions, the results also tend to

glow. However, there are several exceptions to the success conclusion. Goldring (1969) found that trained interviewers did not achieve more significant facilitative ratings in their initial meetings with the male Negro adolescents than untrained interviewers. Cavins (1969) concluded that short-term systematic instruction in the performance of test administration or the summarizing of student cumulative folders would not prepare teachers to perform these tasks any better than untrained teachers. Hasse, DiMattia and Guttman (1972) found in a follow-up study a year after training that paraprofessionals did not maintain their former high levels of performance on selected human relations skills. Bowers (1972) asked clients to rate the empathy, respect, and genuineness of trained and untrained lay counselors; she found that the trained lay counselors did not fare better in the assessment than the untrained. Topf's (1977) interpersonal process analysis training produced non-significant results.

Nor are those training programs which are presented descriptively unqualifiedly successful. Bridges (1971), for example, expected changes in attitude on the part of underachieving college freshmen as a result of peer counseling, but these changes did not occur. Kern (1970) enlisted children in elementary school to join professional group counselors in helping fellow students who had adjustment problems. While teacher-rated student behavior improved as a result of this help, the expected attitude changes on the part of the counselees did not occur. In Moates' (1970) study of residence hall assistants trained in human relations using the Carkhuff model, the helpee students realized improvement in communications skills; however, the treatment did not appear to influence their level of self actualization.

In echo to D'Augelli and Danish (1976), we need more research in order to identify the crucial elements in training paraprofessionals. The shift from the use of simple program descriptions or one-shot case studies in the early years to true experimental designs in recent years has occurred rapidly. Further, the comparisons tested are often between treatments of some import and status, and are not merely comparisons with no-treatment controls. However, very few process studies are available.

Recommendations for Directors and Supervisors in Paraprofessional Training Programs

Dangers in Short-Term Training

Relatively brief training for paraprofessionals will typically stress specific skills, knowledge, or procedures -- the training of a technician rather than that of a professional. One of the inherent problems of a team approach to staffing, especially where levels or grades of personnel are involved, is that there will not be adequate coordination of efforts. This can result in gaps in service, or duplication, or contradiction. With specific reference to the functioning of a paraprofessional, several difficulties may develop. First, they may not be aware of the rationale or theoretical basis for their service. The result may be inappropriate or inept services, offered to the wrong student client at the wrong time, or under the wrong circumstances. Second, they may not have the perspective which allows them to see the whole picture of service given to students, or to see the whole of the helping services in relation to the educational goals of the school or college. This can result in conflicting or inappropriately applied helping strategies. Third, they may not be socialized well enough into the standards and behavior of the professional life to understand or apply its ethical code. In fact, they may not even see some of the ethical issues. These potential difficulties

suggest that short-term training be designed to make quite specific the objectives of a paraprofessional's service activities; they imply further that the paraprofessional understand his/her exact tasks, that specific applications of helping strategies and procedures be spelled out and practiced, and that the limits on one's behavior be clear.

On the Use of Peer Counselors

As the use of peer counselors increases in schools and colleges, experience is being gained in how to make their services most effective. Some personnel workers are concerned lest the extension of the formal opportunity to students to be helpers be abused. They may, it is contended, begin eagerly but later grow lax as their enthusiasm dims; or some radicals may infiltrate the program to subvert its objectives; or they may overidentify with their fellow student clients' problems. The following recommendations will touch on the above concerns:

1. For those who are concerned about the subverting of services: Select students whose philosophy is geared to the purposes of the institution, and who are not likely to subvert its objectives. Their regular presence on school or college campus gives ample opportunity to observe and assess this.

2. Define clearly the skills to be learned.

3. Conduct training precisely on those skills.

4. Gain a binding commitment from the student trainees. This can be done effectively by tying their service in with academic credit, wages, or other remuneration.

5. Acknowledge the contributions of their services, and strive to make use of their suggestions for improvement in the whole of the helping services. This offers appropriate reinforcement, and also recognizes the power of their presence.

6. Meet regularly for case analysis and to work through various personal, interpersonal, and organizational issues and problems. This will both upgrade skills, provide monitoring of the services being offered, and stimulate close intrastaff relationships.

On the Use of Skill Based Training

It seems clear that training neither for increases in knowledge nor for changes in attitude or personal traits is sufficient to guarantee effective performance of services. Fraleigh (1970), for example, showed that change in attitudes of trainees did not eventuate in improved helping behavior. Most training programs reviewed earlier in this paper devote attention to developing specific tasks or skills, and provide at least simulation or role play activity if not actual experience under supervision as the core of training. Lecture-discussion techniques come off poorly in comparisons of training methodology. Developmental/encounter approaches aimed at personal growth were not found superior in training programs for various kinds of paraprofessionals.

Resistance to Training

Some training programs assume that the paraprofessional must learn certain human relations skills which are foreign to oneself, rather than that one has natural talent as an "indigenous" person. Where this is so, the same resistances to change may occur as are apparent in professional counselor preparation programs. From the start, trainees are anxious because the new activity calls into question their current mode of functioning. It may first of all be construed as an insult of sorts, since in effect the trainees feel led to believe that all their efforts at helping up to the present may have been inappropriate. In addition, the desire for stability prompts trainees to cling to their old behavior, to what

they know works, rather than sacrifice it for something they have not tried before. These tendencies to resist may best be dealt with by the constant positive expectation on the part of trainers that in fact communication skills can be developed. Trainer facilitativeness and support are critical in a human relations skills training program of this type.

Trainers vary in their opinion on how soon to expose trainees to real job situations. Some believe that early contact assures trainees that their life experiences to this point are valued, and that they are trusted. Others believe that some delay at least in the offering of direct client services is preferred, on the ground that these activities are complex and bewildering. Peth (1971), for example, speaking of rehabilitation aides, is concerned that trainees will not feel ready to offer suitable help and may become discouraged, even cynical. To the extent that such negative attitudes can be thought of as resistance to training, one must size up trainees to determine their readiness for exposure to live helping situations.

Basic Job Skills

Some paraprofessional programs deliberately choose trainees who are different socioculturally or in life style from the typical professional in the school or college. It may be necessary to screen such paraprofessional trainees on some basic skills. Does the paraprofessional take oral messages and transmit them accurately, politely, and promptly? Are voice level, tone, and clarity adequate? Is eye contact used appropriately in person-to-person communication? Posture? Does the paraprofessional write legibly? Compute and copy accurately? Dress suitably?

Not every paraprofessional program will be concerned with these questions. Some, for example, may choose their paraprofessionals precisely

because they represent the norms of the community; this may express itself in dress or language which is at variance with the customary expectations of the school or college. Each program and each trainer group must answer these questions for the local setting.

Level of Trainer Functioning

The hypothesis that there is variation in the competency of trainers of paraprofessionals and that this influences the outcomes of training is only beginning to be explored. Carkhuff's (1969a) perceptive analysis of the training of adults in human relations skills deduces that there are three crucial variables interacting to make or break the training of professionals. Two of these, the type of training and the selection and functioning of trainees, have been discussed above. The trainer variable is the third.

Advanced levels of preparation do not seem to produce increased professional competency. Carkhuff's data show that gains in facilitative skills were greater in programs for paraprofessionals and in programs in which the helpees themselves (e.g., parents) were also helpers than in programs at the Master's or Doctoral level. Paraprofessionals' facilitative skills at the conclusion of training, also, were often higher than the professionals'.

At the least, Carkhuff's data suggest that the facilitation level of the trainer must exceed that of the trainees in order to provide a model and to lead trainees toward improvement in their own communication skills. In those programs in which trainer level was not above that of the trainees, the trainees' facilitative skills either remained unchanged or even deteriorated.

Team Building

Some emphasize building a team of personnel differentiated as to role and level of function. No longer is the professional working alone, performing the whole job from intake to counseling to consulting to outreach to paperwork. Grosser (1968) speaks very helpfully on this topic, especially in regard to programs which use indigenous paraprofessionals. Teams, however, have built-in hazards. There are issues that will arise between professional and paraprofessional, between paraprofessional and the institution, between paraprofessionals, and even between professionals as a result of a program of this type. It is regrettable to note that only a few projects in the training literature focused specific attention, either preservice or in-service, on resolving staff relationship problems or on building a cooperative team. Zeran (1969), who conducted a training institute for counselor aides in disadvantaged schools, brought together counselors, principals, and paraprofessionals several times during training. Preservice, they assembled to learn to work as a team; in-service, they gathered periodically to evaluate their work. Leland (1972) brought supervisors and trainees together to learn about each other's roles and expectations. An outstanding example of full involvement of paraprofessional and professional staff is given by Goldenberg (1971) in his description of the formation and operation of the Residential Youth Center in New Haven, Connecticut. From the start, all personnel at the Center were active in developing objectives, approaches and procedures. They met regularly as a total staff to explore the behavior of individuals (even put staff members in the "hot seat"); other sessions were held to work out relationship and organizational problems, and yet others to supervise and improve their job skills.

Following Up Preservice Training

Several studies examine paraprofessional performance at some point beyond the immediate end of training. The results are mixed. Although Dendy (1971) found that certain relationship skills were retained over a several-month period by residence hall assistants, Scharf's (1971) outcomes were less favorable. Using the same training model and criteria as Dendy, Scharf found that while paraprofessionals scored as well as professional counselors on a posttest, eight weeks later the professional counselors scored significantly higher than the training group. Haase, et al. (1972) give perhaps the most striking data regarding follow-up of training. A year after the training of guidance paraprofessionals in selected human relations skills using the microcounseling paradigm, the trainees were retested. On the assumption that without continued reinforcement a learned behavior will decline, it was expected that paraprofessionals who had learned to expect social reward from supervisors during training would show a decrease in the learned skills once supervision ended. The follow-up results confirmed this on almost every criterion measure.

The implications seem clear. Despite short-term maintenance of skills in human relations, paraprofessionals seem progressively to lose those skills over time when they have no follow-through or ongoing supervision. Supervision in this case is not to be construed only as resolving organizational issues and interpersonal conflicts should they arise. Rather, it must be focused on skill development and skill maintenance.

Such in-service training and supervision has taken many forms. Delworth (1969) used her junior high school aides as co-counselors in family groups, working directly with them in the training process. Muro (1970) developed a seminar-discussion series and on-the-job supervision

for his community volunteers. Salim and Vogan (1968) introduced cooperative planning sessions between paraprofessionals and counselors, and also conducted a series of conference/instruction meetings between paraprofessionals, counselor educators and members of the project staff. Paul, McInnis and Mariotto (1973) found the best results with a program which combined abbreviated formal instruction and observations, followed up with supervised practice. Leland (1972) utilized external project staff to visit the schools and agencies where resource center aides were working, in order to offer help to supervisors and paraprofessionals. In the Primary Mental Health Project (Cowen, et al., 1971), graduate students in clinical psychology act as trainer-consultants for community women paraprofessionals who work largely in their everyday style with elementary school children. In almost every ongoing program, continuous and supportive supervision is either reported, or urged, or lamented in its absence.

Group Awareness Experiences in Paraprofessional Training

For as long as growth-oriented experiences in groups have been considered a fruitful vehicle for clients, so too counselors and other personnel workers have been provided various forms of that same treatment as part of their professional preparation. The emphasis has varied. In earlier times the activity was group counseling, which was often heavily problem-focused. In more recent years stress has been on confrontation, sensitivity, and encounter groups, with their here-and-now content. Still more recently, group experiences in training have often been highly skill-building oriented, or focused on specific issues which arise to group members in the course of their work with clients.

Accompanying this evolution in the content and process of group experiences has come the realization that the various forms of group work

are differentially, not universally, applicable to the many client populations. A major concern has developed to match the group experience with the life style and needs of the participant. Thus one acknowledges that some helpees are prepared to use talk as their main form of communication and expression; others are more often action-oriented, and prefer a group experience tailored to that mode of expression. Some helpees are introspective in their learning activity; others focus more on coping and externally giving signs of their adaptation or control. Some prefer to see their release and growth in terms of independence from others; others see themselves only in context and interdependence. Some can handle the relatively indirect and amorphous goals of developmental/encounter groups; others adapt better to concrete and immediate skill-building activities, or to experiences which focus on their present dealings with persons they are trying to help.

A variety of types of group experience has been tried in the training of paraprofessionals, as with professional counselors. Denham, et al. (1967) used open-agenda developmental groups as one of their several modes of training for New Careers type aides enrolled in a high school program. Outside of education, Christmas (1966) used similar group experiences in training mental health aides. There has been growing opposition, however, to the unstructured type of training for paraprofessionals on several grounds. One, the training of paraprofessionals is presumed to be relatively brief, a matter of weeks or months as opposed to the years involved for professionals. This short duration does not always allow for in-depth attention to the personal growth of the trainee. Two, the outcomes in terms of improved helping behavior are dubious when paraprofessionals are exposed to relatively indirect group training experiences. The training

hypothesis says that if trainees feel better about themselves and understand their attitudes and objectives more clearly, then they will function better as helpers; but clear evidence for this is not apparent, especially in the case of paraprofessionals. Third, many paraprofessionals are not recruited for person-to-person direct helping tasks; their training is appropriately directed more to knowledge and skills for the technical/administrative/clerical activities their job calls for. Finally, many paraprofessionals are recruited precisely because of the life style and community perspective and habits they possess. They are selected to function either as spokespersons for the community, or as helpers using their own normal style, which is presumed to be more influential on their peers than that of the professionals. In either case a group training approach which aimed at changing their current functioning or style would defeat the purpose of their employment. Riessman (1967), one of the originators of the New Careers type of paraprofessional philosophy, argued vigorously against sensitivity groups for indigenous paraprofessionals selected from the population of the disadvantaged poor. Goldenberg's (1971) residential youth center training groups comprised both professionals and paraprofessionals; they were conducted on the job. The focus was on perceptions of each other as they worked, difficulties in adapting to and working in the organization, problems in dealing with clients, and other relatively immediate issues. Staub and Petree (1970), who used ex-alcoholics as paraprofessionals in an alcoholism treatment center, focused and limited their training group experiences in a similar way.

Training directors must carefully assess the needs and objectives of their program of helping services, and the characteristics and role of their paraprofessionals, in order to select appropriate group learning experiences for them.

The Needs of Paraprofessionals

Failure to give attention to certain desires and characteristics of paraprofessionals can result in disillusionment, dissatisfaction, and poor functioning of these personnel if their needs are not recognized and handled well in training and on the job.

First, most paraprofessionals, just as professionals, become helpers because of their desire for close human interaction and because of their wish to be observably useful in the lives of others. When paraprofessionals are relegated to routine tasks which deal with only data or things, they may react negatively just as professionals probably would. Erickson (1971) found that high school paraprofessionals in guidance tend to be assigned more non-people activities than those in elementary schools. Kelley (1970) found that aides in elementary schools were more satisfied doing their more varied activities than high school paraprofessionals, and that they were more favorably evaluated by their supervisors. Variety of tasks and the opportunity to provide direct people-oriented services are crucial to paraprofessionals' feelings of worth and successful performance.

Second, it is important for paraprofessionals to be involved in planning, self assessment, and program critique. These activities reduce needless status differences between professionals and paraprofessionals. They also acknowledge visibly that the paraprofessionals' life experiences and opinions are important and that they have a unique contribution to make. The suggestions and illustrations concerning Team Building mentioned above apply here.

A third need commonly ascribed to paraprofessionals is that of upward mobility, both of position, responsibility, and salary. Zimpfer, et al. (1971) suggested three levels of paraprofessional functioning, based on the variables of amount of autonomy, type of interpersonal contact, level of

knowledge, and complexity of the data dealt with. Each level has its own training content and methods. Each is recognized not only by the inherent increases in responsibility, but also by appropriate salary and position promotion. If formal means of providing for levels of training do not exist locally, the approach of Coate and Nordstrom (1969), who describe an informal upgrading method, can be used. When it was observed that aides were performing at a higher level than had been trained and expected, they were gradually assigned more difficult client cases, or cases with special needs, under close supervision. Ongoing programs which do not have direct means of promoting their paraprofessionals to higher salary or position, or furthering their competencies, often encourage these personnel to seek broadening experiences in local four-year and two-year colleges.

Specific attention to the varied needs of paraprofessionals can result in greater satisfaction, a stronger sense of identity with program objectives, and more favorable evaluations of performance.

Changes in Counselor Functioning

Introduction of paraprofessionals will have considerable effect on the role and responsibilities of the counselor or personnel worker. New functions not traditionally part of the professional role, and in which the incumbent may have no real preparation or sense of competency, can be expected. One must, for example, become a coordinator of personnel. This involves distributing and delegating responsibilities, providing for continuity of services, negotiating territoriality disputes and differences of approach, and resolving personal frictions. The professional must also contribute to training, through identifying training needs, establishing and locating time and resources for training, and assessing outcomes. Lastly, the professional's new functions include supervision, which involves both guiding-coaching and evaluating.

When paraprofessionals are used, there are also obvious implications for changed service functions of professionals. These are discussed in another place (Zimpfer, 1974), but it is beyond the scope of this paper.

Counselors and personnel workers must be willing to take on the direction and conduct of the paraprofessional program. They must provide time within their normal work commitment to do this, and know that they have the sanction of their superiors to do so. If they feel unprepared to handle the personnel coordination, or the training, or the supervisory aspects of their new role, they should most certainly seek help in developing such competencies.

Few counselor education programs provide this type of preparation. A review of paraprofessional programs in counseling and personnel services unfortunately suggests that few efforts have been made to include such preparation directly as part of the total implementation package. Zeran (1969) and Leland (1972), in their programs for guidance and resource center aides, approached the idea in at least a minimal way. Zeran asked supervisors to participate for several days along with paraprofessionals in his six-week training institute. The supervisors were given some specific training in supervisory behavior. Leland asked persons who were to act as supervisors to join the paraprofessionals' training program for one day; during this time they had the opportunity to learn what the paraprofessionals were being trained to do, and to compare notes on their perceptions of paraprofessional role. One of the more comprehensive attempts at preparing supervisors of paraprofessionals was conducted at the Wayne County School District in Detroit (Glovinsky and Johns, 1970). While this program was focused on teacher aides rather than on counselor aides, it is instructive for the personnel services. Numerous teams of five persons

from schools throughout the country were assembled, each team representing four different levels: a central office administrator, a building principal, a teacher working with paraprofessionals, and two paraprofessionals. Among the objectives of the 30-hour training: to stimulate more effective staffing practices, to assist certificated personnel to make effective use of aides, and to develop new career models for aides.

Supervision can be organized and managed in various ways. DiMichael (1968), in rehabilitation, suggests three approaches, each of which is based on a different understanding of how the paraprofessional will function, and the supervisory relationships he/she will have:

1. The counseling unit. Counselors retain their usual role of continuing with clients from intake through to follow-up. Counseling and coordination of plans for individual clients are the main focus of treatment. The paraprofessional performs activities not requiring the higher level skills or responsibilities of counselors. Counselors supervise their own paraprofessionals and coordinate their services on behalf of the client.

2. Single-supervisory unit. Again continuity of counseling with individual clients is maintained, but in this case the paraprofessional serves several counselors. A group of counselors and paraprofessionals function under one supervisor.

3. Vertical specialization. The process of (rehabilitation) counseling is broken up into several functions such as evaluation, counseling, placement, follow-up. Counselors are responsible for some areas; technicians are assigned to various areas appropriate to their skills and responsibilities. Coordination of the total package of services is critical in this mode. A supervisor could be in charge of a single vertical function,

with paraprofessionals carrying out assignments under that person's direction.

A fourth supervisory mode is suggested by Jaques (1972): the Support Personnel Unit. In this the paraprofessionals handle their own caseload and are responsible for carrying out all counseling functions. Their work is guided and supervised by a professional. Counselors and paraprofessionals work parallel to each other.

A study by Truax and Lister (1970) indicated that paraprofessionals showed the most success with rehabilitation clients when they functioned under this fourth supervisory mode. When aides served as assistants to the professional counselor working with the counselor's caseload, the poorest client benefits occurred, with even some negative movement. Truax and Lister also noted no friction between professional counselors and the lay counselors in that setting.

Conclusion

Selection, training and supervision of helpers have been central concerns in counseling and personnel services for many years. There is ample research on counselor characteristics and on the relationship of these to counseling effectiveness. These efforts were intended to improve the selection of candidates for counselor training, to help determine which students had been trained "best." In the long haul, however, there is little really solid evidence or agreement as to what counselor characteristics or what training program inputs will predict effectiveness. We know more what doesn't work than what does. In spite of this, many helpers are still selected on the basis of scholastic aptitude and/or achievement, personality attributes, interests, and attitudes.

Newer research has focused on the qualities which facilitate counseling progress, on what expectations promote positive growth, and on the specific facilitative skills of the helper. That is, it is what is done in interacting that determines what happens to helpees and how they will feel about themselves, rather than what the helper is or what scores one has on various normative measures. This change of emphasis has led to fundamental research on the nature of counseling, the role of the counselor, analysis of the interaction process between helper and helpee, and the kinds of material or data which may differentially promote various kinds of growth in helpees.

As the role of counseling becomes more central than the characteristics of the counselor, we are becoming clearer as to the kinds of training we can offer to improve counseling. But even more important, this research is broadening the view of helping from the traditional single counselor in a one-to-one or group situation; we now accept the thesis that

paraprofessionals of various kinds can also be helpful in promoting the personal growth of student clients. This view enlarges geometrically our notions of the variety of personnel and inputs that can serve in the helping process.

One of the core themes in this paper has been to urge practitioners to align their plans for using paraprofessionals with the needs and purposes and current resources of their programs of helping services. It urges them to recognize as imperative the use of differential criteria for various programs, with carefully thought-out procedures for selection and training. The responsibility laid on professionals in planning and implementing the use of paraprofessionals in their programs of helping services is complex and heavy indeed.

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